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27 Abbreviations

- 28
- 29 AdipoQ: adiponectin
- 30 ACOX1: Peroxisomal acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 1
- 31 CD36: fatty acid translocase
- 32 ChIP: Chromatin immunoprecipitation
- 33 C/EBPa: CCAAT/enhancer binding protein alpha
- 34 DNMT: DNA methyltransferase
- 35 DOHaD: Developmental Origin of Health and Disease
- 36 DGAT2: diglyceride acyltransferase
- 37 FABP4: fatty acid binding protein 4
- 38 FAS: fatty acid synthase
- 39 GC: glucocorticoid
- 40 GLUT4: Glucose transporter type 4
- 41 HAT: histone acetyltransferase
- 42 HDAC: histone deacetylase
- 43 KAT2: lysine acetyltransferase 2A
- 44 LPL: lipoprotein lipase
- 45 MBD: methyl-binding domain
- 46 5hmC: 5-hydroxymethylcytosine
- 47 5mC: 5-methylcytosine
- 48 MECP2: methyl CpG binding protein 2
- 49 P300: histone acetyltransferase P300
- 50 PGC1- α : PPAR γ coactivator 1- α
- 51 PND: postnatal days
- 52 PPAR: peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor
- 53 SIRT1: sirtuine 1
- 54 SREBP1: sterol regulatory element-binding protein 1
- 55 TET: Ten-eleven translocation methylcytosine dioxygenase
- 56 WAT: white adipose tissue
- 57 iWAT: subcutaneous inguinal
- 58 pWAT: visceral perirenal
- 59 SVF: stromal vascular fraction
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65 Abstract

According to the Developmental Origin of Health and Disease (DOHaD) concept, 66 maternal obesity and accelerated growth in neonates program obesity later in life. White 67 adipose tissue (WAT) has been the focus of developmental programming events, although 68 underlying mechanisms remain elusive. In rodents, WAT development primarily occurs 69 during lactation. We previously reported that adult rat offspring from high-fat diet-fed dams 70 (called HF) showed fat accumulation and decreased PPARy mRNA levels in WAT. We 71 hypothesized that PPARy downregulation occurs via epigenetic malprogramming which takes 72 place during adipogenesis. We therefore examined epigenetic modifications in the PPARy1 73 and PPARy2 promoters in perirenal (pWAT) and inguinal (iWAT) fat pads of HF offspring at 74 weaning (postnatal days 21 (PND21) and in adulthood. PND21 is a period characterized by 75 active epigenomic remodeling in the PPARy2 promoter (DNA hypermethylation and 76 77 depletion in active histone modification H3ac and H3K4me3) in pWAT, consistent with increased DNMT and DNA methylation activities. Adult HF offspring exhibited sustained 78 hypermethylation and histone modification H3ac of the PPAR γ 2 promoter in both deposits, 79 80 correlated with persistent decreased PPARy2 mRNA levels. Consistent with the DOHaD hypothesis, retained epigenetic marks provide a mechanistic basis for the cellular "memory" 81 linking maternal obesity to a predisposition for later adiposity. 82

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Key words: perinatal programming, Developmental Origin of Health and Disease, epigenetic
mechanisms, gene expression, fat expansion.

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89 Introduction

Epidemiological studies demonstrated that adult-onset metabolic disorders may 90 originate from events taking place during fetal and postnatal development (1). These 91 92 observations led to the Developmental Origin of Health and Disease (DOHaD) hypothesis also called "developmental programming" (1). In particular, maternal obesity and accelerated 93 growth in neonates program obesity later in life. Numerous studies confirmed that maternal 94 obesity is correlated with increased offspring's adiposity in rodents (2-7) and in human 95 neonates (8). Thus, white adipose tissue (WAT) has been the focus of developmental 96 programming events in a sex- and depot-specific manner (2). In rodents, adipose tissue 97 development occurs mainly during lactation (9–11), although adipose tissue remains to some 98 extent expandable throughout life (12, 13). Adipocyte progenitors are highly sensitive to 99 maternal factors. Suboptimal nutritional and hormonal milieu during the perinatal period may 100 101 affect adipogenesis, resulting in modified growth and persistent changes in the structure and function of WAT (14-16). 102

However, the mechanisms underlying developmental programming are poorly 103 understood. Because the consequences of the events occurring in early life are maintained 104 105 throughout adult life, epigenetic modifications are likely to play an important role in this process (17). Epigenetics is defined as heritable changes in gene expression that do not 106 involve changes to the underlying DNA sequence. Epigenetics relate to chromatin 107 modifications, including DNA methylation and histone modifications (18). DNA methylation 108 results from the transfer by DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) of a methyl group to the 109 cytosine residue within CpG dinucleotides to form 5-methylcytosine (5mC) and serves to 110 establish gene silencing (19). 5mC both positively and negatively modulates binding of 111 numerous DNA binding proteins including methyl-binding domain (MBD) proteins (MBD2, 112 MeCP2). MBD can recruit protein and chromatin remodeling complexes known to promote 113

the formation of a condensed chromatin structure (20). 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC) is 114 another important cytosine modification catalyzed by the enzymes of the Ten-eleven 115 translocation methylcytosine dioxygenase (TET) family that serves as an intermediate for 116 demethylation. It can also promote chromatin opening at transcriptional regulatory regions 117 (21). Chromatin structure and accessibility are also controlled by histone posttranslational 118 modifications (18). For example, acetylation of histone H3 lysine residues (H3ac) and 119 120 methylation of H3K4 (H3K4me3) are associated with active transcription while methylation of H3K9 (H3K9me3) generally indicates silenced chromatin (18). These histone 121 posttranslational modifications are catalyzed by various enzymes including histone 122 123 acetyltransferase (HAT) such as KAT2 and P300 as well as histone deacetylase (HDAC) such as SIRT1. Histone-modifying enzyme activity is dependent on intermediary metabolites and 124 hormonal responses (22). Editing of epigenetic marks during critical developmental windows 125 in early life may serve as a memory of exposure to potential environment insults (1). The 126 persistence of these marks throughout life may program permanent changes in gene 127 expression (1). 128

We previously showed that adult male rat offspring from high-fat diet-fed dams (called 129 HF) displayed higher adiposity (2), hyperleptinemia and elevated leptin gene expression in 130 WAT (25). Persistent leptin upregulation occurs via epigenetic malprogramming during 131 lactation in a depot-specific manner (23). We also showed that adult HF offspring exhibited a 132 decrease in PPARy gene expression in perirenal (pWAT) fat pad (2). PPARy is considered the 133 134 master regulator of adipose tissue promoting all processes involved in adipocyte function and WAT expansion. PPAR γ is present in two isoforms, PPAR γ 1 and PPAR γ 2, generated by 135 alternative promoter usage (24). PPARy1 is expressed at low level in many cell types 136 including cells from stromal vascular fraction (SVF) of adipose tissue, whereas the expression 137 of PPARy2 is mainly restricted to adipocyte (24). Although several studies reported 138

dysregulation of PPARγ expression in offspring from obese dams (3–5, 7, 25, 26), scarce data
is available about programming mechanisms.

Here, we hypothesized that maternal obesity programs persistent PPARγ downregulation in HF offspring via epigenetic mechanisms malprogramming which take places during WAT development. Thus, we examined epigenetic modifications (i.e., DNA and histone modifications) focusing on both PPARγ promoters as well as activity and expression of chromatin modifying enzymes in pWAT and inguinal (iWAT) fat pads of HF offspring at weaning and 9 months of age.

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148 Materials and methods

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150 Animals

Animal use accreditation by the French Ministry of Agriculture (No. 04860) has been 151 granted to our laboratory for experimentation with rats. Experiments were conducted in 152 accordance with the principles of laboratory animal care (European Communities Council 153 Directive of 1986, 86/609/EEC) as previously described (2, 25). One-month-old virgin female 154 Wistar rats were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (L'Arbresle, France) and were 155 housed in individual cages in a humidity-controlled room with a 12:12-h light-dark cycle. 156 Food and water were available *ad libitum*. After two weeks of acclimatization on a control (C) 157 diet (3.85 kcal/g with 10% of total calories as fat consisting of soybean oil (5.6%) and lard 158 (4.4%), 70% as carbohydrate and 20% as protein; D12450J, Research Diets, New Brunswick, 159 160 NJ, USA), female rats were fed either a high-fat (HF) diet (5.24 kcal/g with 60% of total calories as fat consisting of soybean oil (5.6%) and lard (54.4%), 20% as carbohydrate and 161 20% as protein; D12492B, Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ, USA) or a C diet for 16 162 weeks (n=30 per group). After mating with a male rat fed a C diet, 22-week-old pregnant 163

females were transferred into individual cages with free access to water and to their respective 164 diets (C or HF diet) throughout gestation and lactation. At parturition, pups were weighed and 165 sexed. Litter size was adjusted to 8 pups per dam (four males and four females). Body weight 166 of pups was assessed on postnatal days 21 (PND21). Only male offspring have been used for 167 further analysis. After weaning, male offspring from C or HF dams were housed individually 168 with free access to water and C diet. Body weight of animals was measured weekly until 9 169 months of age. Male offspring were sacrificed at 2 different stages: PND21 and 9 months of 170 age (n=10 from C or HF dams). To obviate any litter effects, animals used for each 171 experiment were randomly chosen in different litters and only a limited number of animals 172 173 (n=1 to 2) was used from each litter.

174

175 Plasma and tissue collections

176 21-day-old male neonates were separated from their dams and 9-month-old (9M) male 177 rats were fasted 16 hours before they were sacrificed by decapitation (between 9 and 10 a.m.). 178 Trunk blood samples were collected into prechilled tubes containing EDTA (20 μ l of a 5% 179 solution) and centrifuged at 4000 g for 10 min at 4°C. Plasma was stored at -20°C. Fat pads 180 were weighed, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

181

182 Quantification of endocrine parameters

Plasma hormone levels were evaluated in PND21 and 9M male offspring. Blood glucose was determined using a glucometer (Glucotrend 2; Roche Diagnostics, France). Plasma corticosterone levels were determined by a competitive enzyme immunoassay (Immunodiagnostic Systems Ltd, Boldon, U.K). Plasma insulin concentrations were measured by ELISA (DRG, Internatlukaional, Inc. USA). The assay sensitivity was 0.07 ng/ml (insulin), 0.55 ng/ml (corticosterone) and the intra-and inter-assay coefficients of variation were 4% and 9.1% (insulin), 4.9% and 7.8% (corticosterone), respectively. Assay kits were
applied to determine the contents of plasma triglycerides (61238 Triglyceride Enzymatique
PAP100).

192

193 Western blot analysis

Immunoblotting analysis were carried out as described previously (23). Monoclonal
mouse antibody against PPARγ (catalogue no. sc-7273) was purchased from Santa Cruz
Biotech (Dallas, TX, USA) and was diluted 1:200. Actin antibody (catalogue no. A2228) was
purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Saint Quentin Fallavier, France) and was diluted 1:1000.
Anti-mouse IgG, HRP-linked Antibody (catalogue no. 7076) secondary antibodies were
purchased from Cell Signalling (Danvers, MA, USA) and were diluted 1:10,000.

200

201 Pyrosequencing analysis

202 Genomic DNA was extracted from frozen WAT using a DNA extraction kit (DNeasy blood and tissue kit, Oiagen, Courtaboeuf, France) and modified with sodium bisulfite using 203 the EpiTect Fast Bisulfite Conversion kit (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France) according to the 204 manufacturer's protocol. The percentage of cytosine methylation was determined by 205 pyrosequencing bisulfite converted DNA using Pyro-Mark Q24 (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, 206 France). Pyrosequencing primers were designed to amplify PPARy1 and PPARy2 CpG sites 207 (Table 1). PCR was performed with 20 µl final reaction volumes with 1.5 ml of bisulfite DNA 208 (10 ng), 10 µl of QuantiTect EurobioGreen PCR Mix Hi-ROX (Eurobio, Les Ulis, France), 209 7.7 µl of H₂O, and 0.4 µl of each primer set (10 mM). Sequencing reactions used 10 µl of 210 PCR product and 20 µl of 0.375 mM sequencing primer (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France). 211 212 Pyrosequencing assays were validated with a DNA methylation scale (0%, 5%, 25%, 50%,

213 75% and 100%) (EpigenDX, Hopkinton, USA). Each assay included a bisulfite conversion
214 check to verify full conversion of the DNA.

215

216 Chromatin immunoprecipitation

217 ChIP assays were performed as previously described (27) with antibodies against 218 H3K4me3, H3ac and H3K9me3 (Abcam, Cambridge, UK, ab8580, ab47915 and ab1773) and 219 IgG (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, USA, #2729) as a negative control. H3ac, 220 H3K4me3 and H3K9me3 levels were analyzed using immunoprecipitated and input DNA as 221 control.

222

223 **RNA** isolation and real-time PCR

PPARγ isoforms (PPARγ1, PPARγ2), PPARγ targets (C/EBPα, SREBP1, FAS,
DGAT2, LPL, CD36, FABP4, GLUT4, ACOX1, AdipoQ, Resistin), enzymes of the
epigenetic machinery (DNMT1, MBD2, MECP2, TET2, TET3, KAT2, P300, HDAC1,
SIRT1, LSD1, SUV39) mRNA levels were determined by RT-qPCR using SyberGreen-based
chemistry as previously described (2). Cyclophilin A (PpiA) and Ribosomal Protein Lateral
Stalk Subunit P1 (RPLP1) were used as reference genes for RT-qPCR. Primer sequences are
listed in Table 1.

231

232 Global DNA methylation and hydroxymethylation

Relative levels of global DNA methylation were assessed by me-CpG ELISA using
the MethylFlashTM Methylated DNA Quantification Kit (Cat # P-1034; Epigentek,
Mundolsheim, France). Global DNA hydroxymethylation were measured using the Quest 5hmCTM DNA ELISA Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA) according to manufacturer's

instructions. The amount of DNA methylation and DNA hydroxymethylation was calculatedbased on a standard curve generated using the kit controls.

239

240 Enzyme activity

DNMT, TET, HAT and HDAC activities were studied using the EpiQuick DNMT Assay kit (Cat # P-3001-2; Epigentek, Mundolsheim, France), TET Hydroxylase Activity Quantification kit (Cat # ab156912; Abcam, Cambridge, UK), EpiQuick HAT Assay kit (Cat # P-4003-96; Epigentek, Mundolsheim, France) and EpiQuick HDAT Assay kit (Cat # P-4002-96; Epigentek, Mundolsheim, France). These assays were performed according to manufacturer's instructions.

247

248 Statistical analysis

All data are expressed as means \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical analysis was carried out using GraphPad Prism6. A direct comparison between a pair of groups was made using an unpaired Student's t test. *P* values < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

253

- 254 **Results**
- 255

256 Effects of maternal obesity on HF offspring metabolic parameters

Given that metabolic signals including hormonal signaling pathways play critical roles in determining chromatin structure (28), we assessed the plasma metabolic profile in HF offspring. We previously reported that weaned and adult HF offspring exhibited hyperleptinemia (2, 23). Here, we show that serum triacylglycerol and insulin levels were elevated in HF male offspring at PND21 (Table 2). At 9 months of age, HF male offspring still displayed hyperinsulinemia and had hypercorticosteronemia (2). No difference in plasma
glucose concentration was observed at both stages (Table 2, (2)).

264

Offspring from obese dams show persistent decreased PPARγ expression levels in adipose tissue

At PND21, HF offspring showed a decrease in PPARγ mRNA and protein expression in pWAT and iWAT, consistent with global reduction in PPARγ1 and PPARγ2 expression (Fig 1A-D). At 9M, among PPARγ1 and PPARγ2, only the latter showed a persistent dowregulation in both fat pads. The impact of maternal obesity on HF offspring's PPARγ target genes was more pronounced in pWAT at both stages, suggesting a depot-specific programming of adipogenesis and lipogenesis (Fig 1E, F).

273

274 Persistent lower PPARγ expression is associated with CpG hypermethylation in the 275 PPARγ2 promoter of HF offspring

We first assessed whether maternal obesity affects CpG methylation status of the 276 PPARy1 and PPARy2 proximal promoter regions (Fig 2A) in offspring. To do this, we 277 analyzed single CpG sites by bisulfite pyrosequencing. For the PPARy1 promoter, at PND21, 278 higher 5mC levels with hypermethylation at two out of seven CpG sites analyzed (-364/-346) 279 were observed in pWAT of HF offspring (Fig 2B). Only hypermethylation of CpG -346 280 persisted in HF offspring at 9 months of age (Fig 2B). No variation in DNA methylation 281 levels were detected in iWAT (Fig 2C). For the PPARy2 promoter, higher 5mC levels were 282 measured in both fat pads and stages in HF offspring. Two out of four CpG dinucleotides (-283 215/-199) were similarly affected by maternal obesity. Both CpG were hypermethylated at 284PND21 whereas only the CpG -199 remained hypermethylated at 9M (Fig 2D and E). 285

Consistently, CpG hypermethylation were correlated with PPARγ mRNA levels at PND21
and 9M in both deposits.

288

Weaned offspring from obese dams display higher DNMT activity and global DNA methylation in pWAT

We then assessed whether maternal obesity affects the epigenetic machinery activity in offspring. At PND21, DNMT activity (Fig 2F) and global DNA methylation (Fig 2G) were higher in pWAT, consistent with the CpG hypermethylation observed in the PPARγ promoters of HF offspring. No variations in TET activity (Fig 2J) and global hydroxymethylation (Fig 2K) were observed. No changes of DNMT1, MBD2, MECP2, TET2 and TET3 mRNA levels were detected (Fig S1). No gross modifications were observed in iWAT at PND21 and in both fat pads at 9M for all parameters (Fig S1).

298

299 Persistent lower PPARy expression is associated with depletion in H3ac/H3K4me3 in the

300 PPARy2 promoter of HF offspring

Finally, we assessed whether maternal obesity affects histone modifications in both 301 promoters of offspring. For the PPARy1 promoter, at PND21, ChIP-qPCR revealed less 302 enrichment of H3ac and H3K4me3 (active marks) in both fat pads of HF offspring (Fig 3A-303 304 F). These differences were no longer observable at 9 months of age (Fig 3A-F). For the PPARy2 promoter, at PND21, a reduction of active marks H3ac and H3K4me3 and a 305 tendency towards enrichment of inactive mark H3K9me3 were evidenced only in pWAT of 306 HF offspring (Fig 3A-F). At 9 months of age, persistent reduction of active mark H3ac was 307 measured in both fat pads of HF offspring (Fig 3 A-F). No changes in global histone acetyl 308 transferase and histone deacetylase activities were measured (Fig G and J). No variations of 309 KAT2, P300, HDAC1, SIRT1, LSD1 and SUV39 mRNA levels were evidenced (Fig S1). 310

311 Discussion

Here, we show, for the first time, that persistent decreased mRNA PPAR γ 2 levels in adult HF offspring's WAT may occur via epigenomic remodeling in the PPAR γ 2 promoter which take place during lactation.

We extended our previous work (2) reporting that obesity-prone 9-month-old HF 315 offspring had lower PPARy2 mRNA expression levels in both pWAT and iWAT fat pads. 316 Given that PPAR γ 2 promotes adipocyte differentiation and triglyceride storage in WAT (24). 317 it may appear paradoxical that maternal obesity reduces PPAR γ 2 expression in WAT of HF 318 offspring. However, others have also shown that obesity is associated with a decline in the 319 PPAR γ 2 activity and expression (29–32). These modifications appear to be strongly 320 associated with the pathogenesis of metabolic syndrome (30–32). The decrease in PPAR γ 2 321 gene expression might be seen as an adaptive mechanism to prevent further fat accumulation 322 323 in WAT (33). It may, in turn, durably change the expression of PPARy target genes. Consistent with this hypothesis, recent findings have demonstrated that $PPAR\gamma$ 324 downregulation in obese mice is associated with a decrease in genome-wide association 325 occupancy of PPAR γ (31). 326

We previously reported that HF neonates exhibited a rapid weight gain during lactation. 327 At PND21, HF male offspring displayed higher iWAT and pWAT deposit weights with 328 increased leptin mRNA levels, marked adipocyte hypertrophy and hyperplasia. HF 9-month-329 330 old male rats showed persistent increased pWAT mass with elevated leptin mRNA levels whereas this "expandable" phenotype was no longer observed in iWAT (2, 23). By contrast, 331 both fat pads had persistent lower PPARy expression. These varying outcomes may reflect 332 difference in postnatal and depot-specific programming. Depot-specific adipogenesis is 333 regulated by the anatomic location, the unique signature of developmental gene expression 334 and the hormonal microenvironment of WAT (35). PPARy governs biological processes by 335

modifying the expression of a large number of target genes. As already reported (2, 25), gene 336 expression profiling revealed differences in adipogenic and lipogenic activities between 337 iWAT and pWAT of adult HF offspring, suggesting a depot-specific programming. It may 338 appear paradoxical that persistent reduced PPARy2 expression was correlated with an 339 increase in expression of genes associated with fat accumulation (i.e., FAS, DGAT2 and LPL) 340 in pWAT. One possible explanation is that regulation of lipogenic genes in adult HF 341 offspring's WAT may occur, at least in part, via additional PPARy-independent signaling 342 pathways. Consistent with this hypothesis, HF adult male offspring exhibited 343 344 hyperinsulinemia with elevated SREBP-1c mRNA levels within pWAT (2) that might be due for activation of insulin signaling. Indeed, offspring from obese dams showed greater AKT 345 phosphorylation in response to insulin challenge associated with up-regulation of lipogenic 346 pathways in WAT (5). 347

The underlying molecular mechanisms regulating PPAR γ gene expression remain 348 unclear. However, decreased PPARy expression via modifications of epigenetic mechanisms 349 may play a pivotal role in the development of obesity and diabetes (29, 30, 32, 35–37). Few 350 studies have shown that DNA methylation and histone modifications regulate the expression 351 of PPARy in WAT (32, 35, 36, 38–40). First, during adipogenesis, DNA demethylation (33) 352 353 as well as enrichment of active marks H3ac (41) and H3K4me3 (42, 43) were observed in the PPARy promoter region that positively regulates gene expression. Second, luciferase reporter 354 355 assays demonstrated that PPARy promoter methylation may repress reporter gene expression (33). Third, hypermethylation of the PPAR γ 2 promoter, which was negatively associated with 356 PPARy2 expression, was evidenced in visceral WAT of obese animals (32, 36, 38, 40). 357 However, to our knowledge, no data are available regarding PPARy programming 358 359 mechanisms in offspring from obese dams.

We showed that PND21 is a period characterized by active epigenomic remodeling (i.e., 360 361 higher DNA methylation and lower active histone modification H3ac and H3K4me3) of the PPARy2 promoter in pWAT, consistent with decreased PPARy2 mRNA expression levels. 362 Higher DNMT activity parallels the increase in global DNA methylation and CpGs 363 methylation in the PPARy2 promoter. During lactation, adipocyte stem cells are plastic and 364 highly sensitive to maternal factors (44). Thus, maternal obesity and modified milk 365 composition may influence offspring's nutritional and hormonal status (45, 46). Indeed, 366 epigenetic enzyme activities are particularly sensitive to intracellular fluctuation in energy as 367 well as metabolic intermediates (22). In line with this notion, weaned HF offspring exhibited 368 369 higher plasma leptin levels (2) as well as insulin and triglycerides concentrations. Consistent with epigenomic remodeling, global enzyme activity modifications were observed at PND21. 370 However, the increase in DNMT and DNA methylation activities were restricted to pWAT in 371 372 weaned HF offspring. It may rely on spatiotemporal developmental differences that occur between depots. The DNMT activity is maximal during adipogenesis (47). In rodents, iWAT 373 depots begin to develop during embryogenesis and the progenitor compartment is established 374 before the first few days of life whereas pWAT depots mainly develop postnatally during 375 lactation which coincides with the period of maximum adipogenesis (11, 48). As already 376 377 suggested (2, 25), offspring's pWAT seems to be much more sensitive to maternal obesity.

378 Some of these epigenetic modifications were still observable in the PPAR γ 2 promoter in 379 adult HF offspring. Sustained epigenetic modifications (i.e., higher DNA methylation and 380 lower active histone modification H3ac) were observed in both fat pads of adult HF offspring, 381 consistent with persistent decreased PPAR γ gene expression. 5mC is the only known 382 modification that targets the DNA itself. In most cases, the extent of 5mC of a promoter is 383 inversely correlated with the activity of the respective gene (19). We also showed that the 384 global 5mC level of the PPAR γ 2 promoter in adult HF offspring was lower than weaned HF pups, suggesting that a demethylation process occurs during development of WAT. The enrichment of H3ac is characteristic of promoter activation (43). A limitation of our work lies in the fact that DNA analysis was performed on entire tissue without distinguishing adipocyte and SVF fractions. Extracts may contain different cell type depending on the stage of development, tissue expansion and physiological states. However, gene expression profiling using several cell markers suggests that the composition of HF offspring's WAT is not modified regardless of the stage of development.

Our results provide compelling evidence that downregulation of PPARγ expression may have developmental origins through epigenetic mechanisms. Thus, editing of early-life epigenetic markings that occurs during development of WAT may persist throughout life. Consistent with the DOHaD hypothesis, retained marks may provide a mechanistic basis for the cellular "memory" linking maternal obesity to a predisposition for later adiposity.

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Author contributions: S.L., F.O., D.E., A.G., J.E., C.B. designed the experiments, analyzed data and contributed to discussion and manuscript. C.P., L.B., L.M. performed the experiments. C.L., C.G., J.L., D.V. contributed to discussion.

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408 **Conflicts of interest:** The author declares that he has no conflict of interest that could be 409 perceived as prejudicing the impartiality of the research reported.

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Table 1

- 577 Primers used for RT-qPCR and pyrosequencing. Primer sequences are indicated (see text for
- 578 definitions).

	RT-qPCR primer sequences	Targeted mRNA		Pyrosequencing primer sequences	Targeted regions
Forward	TTGGCCATATTTATAGCTGTCATTATT	PPARy	Forward	ATGTTGGTTAAATGAGTTTATTTAGTG	DDA Du2 promoto
Reverse	TGTCCTGGATGGGCTTCA	FFANY	Reverse	Biotin-ACACTATCCTAATTAAAAACCAACTA	#1
Forward	GCACTGCCTATGAGCACTTC		Sequence	ATTGAATGTGTGGG	
Reverse	GTGGCCTGTTGTAGAGTTGG	PPARYI	Forward	TTGTTTAGTTTTGTGGAATGTGGAGAGTAG	PPARγ2 promoter #2
Forward	GCTGCAGCGCTAAATTCATC		Reverse	Biotin-ACTATCTCCCCAATAACCCACACATTCA	
Reverse	GCTGATTCCGAAGTTGGTGG	PPARyz	Sequence	TGTTGAATA-AATTATTTTAGAAGT	
Forward	CCAATCACGCAATAGTTCTGG	400%	Forward	GGGGGATTATTGTTATGTGATATGTT	
Reverse	CGCTGTATCGTATGGCGAT	ACOX	Reverse	Biotin-ATAAAAAAAAATTAAAACCCTCCCTAAAAAT	PPARyz promotel
Forward	CAGGAGATGCTGGAATGACA	A sline O	Sequence	ATTAGGTTATTTATGTGATAAGG	#3
Reverse	CTACGCTGAATGCTGAGTGAT	Ααίρος	Forward	AACTATCACCAAATCCACACAAT	
Forward	TGCATGAATTAGTTGAACCAGGCCA	0026	Reverse	Biotin-CCCAAAACAATCTAACACCAACCATAA	0040
Reverse	CCACAGTTCCGATCGCAGCCC	CD36	Sequence	1 GGTTTTTTAGAAGGTGTT	PPARy1 promote
Forward	AGTTGACCAGTGACAATGACCG	0/500	Sequence	2 GTGAGAGTTAGGAGTAGGGTA	#1
Reverse	TCAGGCAGCTGGCGGAAG	C/EBPα	Sequence	3 TTTGATAGGAAAGTTAGGT	
Forward	AGGCCTTGATGGTTTCTATCCA			ChIP-gPCR primer sequences	Targeted region
Reverse	GCTGCCCTTCCCCAATTAAC	DGAT2	Forward		
Forward	TAGTTCGGTGGCTACGAGGA		Reverse	CGACAGTGACCCCATTTTCC	PPARγ1 promote
Reverse		DNMT1	Forward		
Forward			Roverse		PPARy2 promote
Poweree		FABP4	Forward		
Eorword			Polivaru		Control A
Diwalu		FAS	Ferward		
everse			Porvara		Control B
-orward		GLUT4	Reverse	GGGCCACIGIIGCCATITIA	
(everse			4		
orward		HDAC1			
(everse			-		
-orward		KAT2A			
<u>veverse</u>			4		
-orward		LPL			
Reverse			-		
-orward	GGCAAGAGCGATGTCTACTA	MBD2			
Reverse			4		
-orward		MeCP2	1		
veverse			-		
Povora		P300			
Teverse			-		
		Resistin	1		
Forward			4		
Povorac		Sirt1			
Reverse			4		
Forward		SREBP1			
Reverse Forward			4		
Powaraa		TET2			
Forward			4		
Povorac		TET3			
Forward			4		
Povoroc		— Ppia	1		
Reveise Forward			4		
<u>FUIWard</u>		Rplp1	1		
Reverse	GUAAAUAAGUUAGGUUAGAAA		1		

Table 2

- 586 Plasma parameters of weaned male offspring from obese dams fed either a control (C) or a
- 587 high-fat (HF) diet

Variable	Male	e Offspring PND2	1
	С	HF	Maternal diet effect
			p value
Glucose (dg/ml)	168.22 ± 5.49	171.14 ± 2.54	ns
Triacyglycerol(mg/dl)	210.9 ± 11.28	281.9 ± 13.10	*
Insulin (µU/ml)	34.35 ± 5.94	60.99 ± 5.49	*
Corticosterone (ng/ml)	221.21 ± 16.87	216.63 ± 20.84	ns

591	All data are presented as means +/- SEM. Data were analyzed using Student's <i>t</i> test. Effects of
592	maternal obesity at PND21 (* $P < 0.05$). n = 20 per group.

Figure 1: Maternal obesity induces persistent lower PPARγ expression in adipose tissue of offspring

PPARy expression was assessed in male offspring from dams fed a control diet (called 607 C) or high-fat diet-fed dams (called HF) on postnatal days 21 (PND21) and 9 months of age 608 (9M). PPARy, PPARy1 and PPARy2 mRNA levels were determined in pWAT (A) and iWAT 609 610 (**B**) by RT-qPCR. Representative Western blot of PPAR γ (55 KDa) and β -Actin (43 KDa) were indicated in pWAT (C) and iWAT (D). mRNA levels of PPARy target genes were 611 determined in pWAT (E) and iWAT (F) by RT-qPCR. Relative gene expression in the C 612 group at PND21 was set to 1. Ppia and Rplp1 were used as standard genes. All data are 613 presented as means +/- SEM. Data were analyzed using Student's t test. Effects of maternal 614 615 obesity at PND21 (*P < 0.05) and at 9M (#P < 0.05). n = 5-10 per group.

616

Figure 2: Persistent lower PPARγ expression is associated with CpG hypermethylation

618 in the PPARγ2 promoter of HF offspring

Epigenetic modifications were assessed in male C and HF offspring in two fat pads (pWAT and iWAT) at PND21 and 9M. Schematic positions and sequences of rat PPARγ1 and PPARγ2 promoters were shown (**A**). CpG methylation in PPARγ1 promoter (**B**, **C**) and PPARγ2 promoter (**D**, **E**) were assessed by bisulfite pyrosequencing in pWAT (**B**, **D**) and iWAT (**C**, **E**). DNMT activity from nuclear protein (**F**) and global DNA methylation (**G**) were assessed in pWAT and iWAT. TET activity from nuclear protein (**H**) and global DNA hydroxymethylation (**I**) were assessed in pWAT and iWAT. All data are presented as means +/- SEM. Data were analyzed using Student's *t* test. Effects of maternal obesity at PND21 (*P < 0.05) and at 9M (#< 0.05). n = 5 per group.

Figure 3: Persistent lower PPARγ expression is associated with depletion in H3ac/H3K4me3 in the PPARγ2 promoter of HF offspring

Epigenetic modifications were assessed in male C and HF offspring in two fat pads (pWAT and iWAT) at PND21 and 9M. Histone modifications were measured by ChIP assays with antibodies against H3ac (A, B), H3K4me3 (active mark) (C, D) and H3K9me3 (inactive mark) (E, F) in pWAT (A, C, E) and iWAT (B, D, F). HAT (G) and HDAC (H) activities were assessed from nuclear protein of pWAT and iWAT. All data are presented as means +/-SEM. Data were analyzed using Student's t test. Effects of maternal obesity at PND21 (*P < 0.05) and at 9M (#P < 0.05). n = 5 per group.





TTTCATTGTGACATAGCACTTACCACTTAAACATCAACCATTGGAATACTGCTGCAGTTGCTAT TGATAGACAAATTGAAAACACAAACTTTGATATATAAAATTTAAACTTTACCAGCCTTTATTCTG TCAACTGTTTAGTTCTGTGGAATGTGGAGAGCAGTAGCATTTTTGATCTTTTGTAAAC AATAAATCACCCTAGAAGTACCCA<u>CG</u>TGGGTAACAAAATCTAAAATAAGAATATGTATA -507 GTATTCTTCAGATAATGTGATT GAA ITATCTAGTGTT -215 CCATT CGTTTTCCTTGTCTTGCCAAAGAAG -199 GCTCTCAATCAGGACAGTGCCAG Reverse ChIP primer 4:151550311 +151551060 ; Rn4





C-9M

HF-9M

